DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 080 649 UD 013 781

AUTHOR	Hill, Milton; Mullen, David J.
TITLE	A Strategy for Productive Sociopolitical and Educational Behavior.
INSTITUTION	Texas Univ., El Paso. Cross-Cultural Southwest Ethnic Study Center.
PUB DATE	Jul 72
NOTE	26p.; Paper presented at the Cross-Cultural Southwest Ethnic Study Center Workshop entitled "Sociopolitical Environment and Education," June 27-29, 1972
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	Black Community; Change Agents; Community Development; Educational Administration; *Educational Change; *Organizational Development; Political Influences; *Political Issues; *Political Power; Power Structure; Self Help Programs; Social Action; *Social Change; Socioeconomic Influences; Systems Approach

ABSTRACT

Drastic change is taking place in America today. If drastic change does indeed foster revolution then our challenge is to help bring about peaceful revolution by making those changes that give power to the powerless. Both the majority and the minority groups are presented with the challenge of developing strategies and techniques for implementing these strategies which will impart the educational, technical, social and political skills which will enable the weak to get bread, human dignity, freedom and strength by their own efforts. The American political system will yield only to imcremental changes. These can however be consistent--depending upon the ability of groups and factions to mobilize large numbers of people. A strategy for productive sociopolitical behavior could utilize David Easton's model of a political system which emphasizes environmental influences on political activity. Along with changes in the sociopolitical arena are concomitant changes in other institutions such as the school. Educational innovation and sociopolitical innovation have been riding anunprecedented wave of concern. The bureaucratic structure of the school system and the political system is speaking and cracking at the joint. What is needed by those of us responsible for providing leadership in the school is a management strategy for producing change. Organizational development is an emerging management strategy which is action research oriented. It is a process which can be used to attack any problem in the schools. [Some pages in this document are only marginally legible.] (Author/JM)

FILMED FROM BEST AVAILABLE COPY

ED 080649

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

A STRATEGY FOR PRODUCTIVE SOCIOPOLITICAL AND EDUCATIONAL BEHAVIOR

By

Milton Hill, Assistant Professor

and

David J. Mullen, Professor
College of Education
University of Georgia

This paper was prepared for publication by The Cross-Cultural Southwest Ethnic Study Center, Box 13, The University of Texas at El Paso, El Paso, Texas, 79968. Permission for reproduction is granted provided the Center is acknowledged.

Presented at the Center's Workshop on Southwest Ethnic Groups: Sociopolitical Environment and Education, July 27-29, 1972.

UD 013784

A Strategy for Productive Sociopolitical and Educational Behavior

by
Milton Hill, Assistant Professor
&
David J. Mullen, Professor
College of Education
University of Georgia

Eric Hoffer (1963, p. 7) has said that when a population undergoing drastic change is without abundant opportunities for individual action and self-advancement, it develops a hunger for faith, pride and unity. The population undergoing drastic change becomes receptive to all manner of proselytizing, and becomes eager to throw itself into collective undertakings which aim at "showing the world." Hoffer further suggests that drastic change, under certain conditions, creates a proclivity for fanatical attitudes, united action, and spectacular manifestations of flouting and defiance; it creates an atmosphere of revolution. Perhaps, rather than revolutions being set in motion to realize drastic changes, it is drastic change which sets the stage for revolution. Hoffer claims that the revolutionary mood and temper are generated by the irritations, difficulties, hungers, and frustrations inherent in the realization of drastic change.

Sir Francis Bacon said, "It is true that what is settled by custom, though it be not good, yet it is fit. And those things which have long gone together are as it were confederate with themselves; whereas new things though they help by their utility, yet they trouble by their inconformity."

For too many years in American society custom had settled many of our sociopolitical arrangements in ways which, using Bacon's statement, were

"fit," confederate with themselves. With the landmark 1954 Brown decision of the supreme court the possibility of new sociopolitical arrangements began to present many challenges to older arrangements which began immediately to trouble by their inconformity. The result of the Brown decision was not immediate emancipation of the Negro but isolation and exposure of all minority groups. The newly emerging minority group members can become inured to the burdens and strains of a more autonomous existence only when they are offered abundant opportunities for self-assertion or self-realization. The minority individual needs an environment in which achievement, acquisition, sheer action or the development of his talents seems within easy reach. It appears that where the changing status of the minority individual is in process and when self-confidence and self-esteem seem unattainable, he becomes a highly explosive entity.

The awakening of the minority groups in America did not come from an accession of strength. It was not brought about by a gradual or sudden increase of material, intellectual, or moral powers, but by a sense of weakness. Hoffer (1967) also suggests that if power corrupts, weakness also corrupts. Power corrupts the few, but weakness corrupts the many. The resentment of the weak springs from their inadequacy and impotence. We cannot win the weak by sharing our wealth with them for they then feel our generosity as oppression. Our healing gift to the weak must be in the form of self-help. We must learn to impart to them the educational, technical, social, and political skills which enable the weak to get bread, human dignity, freedom and strength by their own efforts.

The two areas addressed by this paper for developing self-help for the minority groups in America are in the sociopolitical and educational

areas. Because one of the authors of this paper is a Negro some of the paper's focus is upon the black minority groups and their problems; however, it is believed by both authors that the principles outlined apply to blacks and Chicanos as well as to other minority groups.

Sociopolitical Environment

Local governments still, according to Banfield and Wilson (1963) serve two principle functions, one of supplying those goods and services which cannot be supplied under private auspices, and the other function--a political one, is that of managing conflict in matters of public importance. It is primarily in the latter function that the greatest problems affecting the sociopolitical environment occur. Banfield and Wilson reported that issues arise out of or at least are nourished from, the more lasting decision in the society, known as cleavages. These are issues which divide the community into "we" and "they" groups.

In some communities, continue Banfield and Wilson (1963) there are few lines of cleavage and none that run very deep. There are many villages and small cities in the United States with an extremely homogeneous population; conflict occurs in these of course, but the grouping of forces is "ad hoc." It is necessary to choose up sides afresh for every conflict, because there are no lasting principles of division. Historically the principal division affecting city politics has not been within the city, but between the country side and the city. This cleavage goes back to the very beginnings of our history; since colonial days, Americans have cherished the myth that the farmer is morally superior to the city dweller. The view of the city as the harlot bent on corrupting the simple,

wholesome country man has been accepted not only by country men, but, to a surprising extent, by city dwellers as well. In turn, some city dwellers, particularly liberals, have in recent years viewed with increasing dismay the "backward" and "selfish" attitudes of rural people.

The long-standing antipathy of "upstate" or "downstate" to the big city is in some cases a reflection of original differences in culture. Chicago for example, was settled by immigrants from Ohio and New York. Where as "downstate" Illinois was settled by immigrants from the border states and the South. When Chicago was hardly more than a village and contained no "foreigners" to speak of, it was actively disliked by the rural hinterland. With this type of orientation, cleavages will always constitute a factor in politics especially in urban areas.

Technically, about three-fourths of the American population now live in areas the census bureau defines as "urban." It is easy to argue, as Senator Abraham Ribicoff has done (in Banfield & Wilson, 1963) that because "seventy percent of all Americans now live in or close to cities--the fate of the city and the future of our country are one and the same thing."

Recently a profusion of books and articles with ominous titles (in Lineberry & Sharkansky, 1971) have decried the state of urban life. Sickcities, Cities in a Race with Time, The Death and Life of Great American Cities, and the Metropolitan Enigma suggest the widely held view that life in the city is increasingly inhospitable.

Within the cities and metropolitan areas the most important cleavages reports Banfield and Wilson (1971) are those between (1) haves and have-nots, (2) suburbanities and the central city, (3) ethnic and racial groups,

and (4) political parties. They tend to cut across each other and, in general, to become one fundamental cleavage separating two opposing conceptions of the public interest.

Disparity in kinds and distribution of property, James Madison said, is the most fundamental cause of parties and factions in all ages and places. Time and experience have given credibility to this position.

Cities are the major producers of wealth in the contemporary United States, primarily because they have the personnel and facilities that process the raw materials of the fields and mines into finished commodities. Almost as important, cities have those specialists in medicine, law, theater, the arts, fashions, and entertainment, whose work is highly prized in a culture of increasingly sophisticated tasks.

The population growth of urban areas is one sign of their economic prosperity, but this growth is also a source of problems for urban authorities. This is due to the fact that prosperity also attracts many untrained segments of the population who want better opportunities for themselves and their families.

The cost to the city of providing some newcomers with service is substantially greater than the value of these newcomers' skills to the city's economy. Urban slums, to which many of these immigrants, and migrants flock, represent a combination of the attractions of the city for poor people and the inability of many immigrants and migrants to succeed in the urban environment. "Here, again," to quote Lineberry and Sharkansky (1971) "is an irony of the urban economy: an abundance of wealth that begets, poverty, even while it reproduces itself, and local

authorities who do not have adequate access to the resources to satisfy the intense demands made upon them."

What is a viable strategy to maximize the social, economic, educational and political opportunity of that segment of our society that Michael Harrington (1962) refers to as "the Other American" or what Jacob Riis (1957) calls "the Other Half." That segment that may be identified individually or ethnically as Blacks, Puerto Rican, Indians, Chicanos--depending upon the allocation of space and time sequence.

Blacks have had some experiences of observing the movements toward liberation and separation. They have also observed the backlash from these movements. A brief look at these experiences may shed some light on this problem facing all minority groups. The late Whitney M. Young, Jr. (1970) reported that:

> Separatism as a strategy for equality has never worked and it never will. The South is dotted with all-black towns. They have all the trapping of power--black mayors, black police, black schools. But they do not have side walks, money, or jobs. Political separatism--as in all black towns has failed. Economic separatism doesn't have a much better chance of succeeding. Young advocated an integrated society, not because associating with whites is of itself a good thing but because it is only through participation in the mainstream that full equality can be achieved.

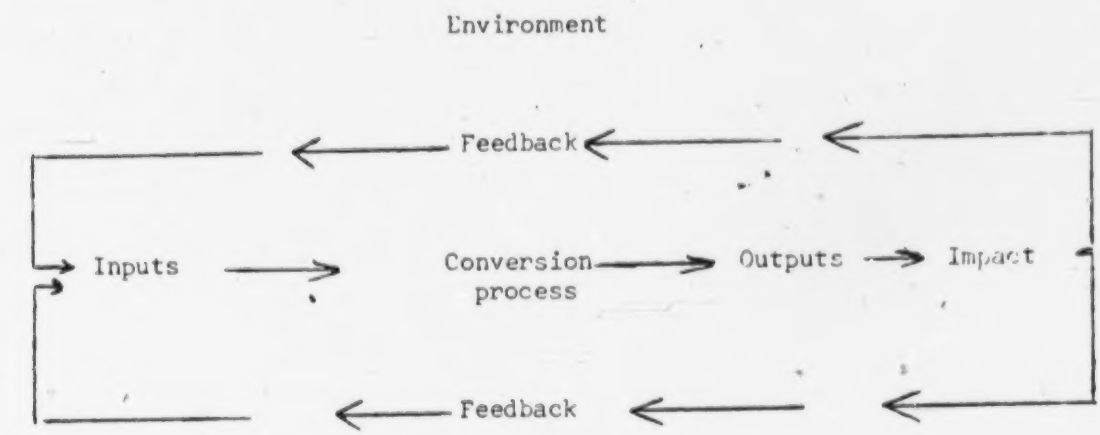
Roy Wilkins (1970) of the NAACP stated, that the separatists forget that their siren call has repeatedly failed. He stated that the credit for the election of blacks as Kenneth Gibson to mayorship of Newark, Howard Lee of Chapel Hill, N. C., Mayor Hatcher of Gary, Indiana, Charles Evers as Mayor of Fayette, Mississippi and Carl Stokes as Mayor of Cleveland, came about--not as a result of confrontation, liberation, or separation--but as a result of voter registration, close study of the strategies of politics, adapting to the realities in an urban situation.

The nominations to the Supreme Court of Clement F. Haynesworth, Jr. of G. Harrold Carswell and in 1930 of the late John J. Parker, were all defeated through organizations backed up with a voting public, through a familiarity with the workings of the federal government and through meticulous and painstaking day-to-day lobbying with senators and voters back home. A coalition process-sanctioned and legitimatized within the system (Wilkins, 1970).

The American political system will not bend or yield to an abrupt revolution, only through incremental changes will the political system yield. These incremental changes can however be consistent-depending upon the ability of groups and factions to mobilize large numbers of people. A strategy for productive sociopolitical behavior, could utilize David Easton's (in Lineberry & Sharkansky, 1971) model of a political system which emphasizes environmental influences on political activity. His premise suggests that it is possible to separate things political from their environment.

Things making up this environment are factors, such as: economic, social, religious, ethnic attitudes and behavior. They also include the decision, policies, rules, and expenditures of states and the federal government. In addition to the environment the basic analytic elements of an urban political system include the inputs, or demands and resources from the environment; the actors and agencies in the conversion process who respond to inputs; the outputs, or policies formulated by decision makers in the conversion process: the impact of policies on the environment; and the feedback of subsequent inputs to decision makers in response to policy impact.

EASTON'S MODEL



In order to gain access to political power, a group may apply all of the political resources available, to all elements of an urban political system. If we use Easton's model of an urban political system, the elements include (1) the inputs, (2) conversion process, (3) outputs and (4) impact.

Robert A. Dahl (in Lineberry & Sharkansky, 1971) describes political resources in the following manner:

> . . . might include an individual's own time; access to money, credit, or wealth; control over jobs; control over information esteem or social standing; the possession of charisma, popularity, legitimacy, or legality--the rights pertaining to public office--solidarity--the right to vote, intelligence education and perhaps even one's energy level.

All groups have political resources. To some degree every political resource can be substituted for others. Lineberry (1971, p. 13) reports that communities short on economic resources can attempt to pirate industry from other communities or can rely upon federal grants. Money can

purchase information, time and political organization for individuals and groups. Even groups without money are not completely without resources. The rich have money, but the poor have both the franchise and strength in numbers. Groups that have low financial resources, continues Litchberry and Sharkansky, (1971) often resort to such other resources as protests, charisma, ethnic solidarity, and manipulation of political symbols. Not all are equally endowed with political symbols. Not all are equally endowed with political resources, but each has stock in some kind of resource. The trick is often to generate the motivation needed to apply available resources. The importance of resources lies less in their potential availability than in the actual extent of their application and in the skills with which they are applied.

Many blacks have gained access to political power through mass voter registration and follow-up activities to insure that the voters vote. Such a power base provides bargaining power that can be traded to maximize economic, political, social and educational opportunities.

Anthony Downs (1971) strategy for combating racism could well constitute in part, a strategy for productive sociopolitical behavior. The nine basic strategies of Downs may be summarized as follows.

> 1. Make all Americans-especially whites-far more conscious of the widespread existence of racism in all its forms, and the immense costs it imposes on the entire nation. Most whites are completely unaware of the many kinds of institutional subordination they themselves support. A crucial task facing those who wish to combat racism is converting this "blindness" into acute consciousness of the many unrecognized ways in which white attitudes, behavior, and institutional structures continue to subordinate minority groups.
>
> 2. Build up the capabilities of minority group members, and greatly strengthen their opportunities and power to exercise those capabilities, especially regarding public and private activities that directly affect them. This strategy embodies one of the ultimate objectives of all the others: enabling presently subordinated

groups both to achieve and to exercise their maximum potential. The capabilities and opportunities concerned therefore include all types: economic, political, social, aesthetic, and cultural. It is especially crucial to provide Negroes and other minority group members with direct experience and power in designing, running, and evaluating both public and private programs and activities in their own neighborhoods. This will not only enhance the capabilities of many deprived minority group members, but also permit many others who already have such capabilities to demonstrate their skills and competence both to themselves and to the Nation as a whole.

Four key observations are relevant to this strategy:

a. An essential ingredient is expressing strong political support for key national policies concerning housing, education, civil rights, employment, welfare programs, tax reforms, and other measures with antiracist effects.

b. In primarily Negro areas, this strategy is closely related to the concepts of "Black Power" and "Black Nationalism," but is need not involve support of geographic separatism.

c. One important device for developing Negro and other minority group business capabilities is the "third-part contract" for providing both public and private services. For instance, if expanded government services concerning neighborhood maintenance were to be carried out, the local government could contract that function in mainly Negro areas to a Negro-owned and operated firm organized for that purpose, rather than enlarging the government itself. An example is PRIDE, Inc., in Washington, D. C. Similarly, white-owned firms procuring or providing services in mainly Negro areas should make every effort to use Negro-owned and operated firms, or Negro franchise operators, as intermediaries between them and their final customers. In some cases, it will take major efforts by the white firms concerned to help minority group members organize new firms and manage them successfully. These efforts are a key input which whites can contribute to the success of this basic strategy.

d. One of the objectives of this basic strategy is to equip Negroes and other minority group leaders with much greater bargaining power in dealing with whites.

3. Develop legislative and other programs which simultaneously provide benefits for significant parts of the white majority and for deprived or other members of nonwhite minority groups, so it will be in the immediate self-interest of the former to support programs which aid the latter.

4. Insure that minority groups members are in a position to contribute to the design, execution, and evaluation of all major social policies and programs. This will improve the quality of such policies and programs by introducing a certain sensitivity to

human values which is too often lacking in the overly technology-oriented behavior of the white majority.

5. Influence local, state, and national policies and programs-both public and private-so they have certain characteristics which will reduce their possible racist effects.

a. Avoidance of any action or arrangement that unnecessarily produces, sustains, or emphasizes derogatory or stigmatizing forms of differentiation.

b. Emphasis upon participation by, and within, the private sector rather than direct dependency upon government at any level.

c. Use of a metropolitan area-wide geographic focus whenever possible.

6. Create recognition among all Americans that overcoming the burdens of racism will cost a great deal of money, time, effort, and institutional change; but that this cost is a worthwhile investment in the future which both society as a whole and individual taxpayers can bear without undue strain.

7. Search out and develop alliances of nonwhites and whites organized to obtain common practical goals, particularly in combating racism.

8. Create many more positively oriented contracts between whites and Negroes and other minority group members-including personal contacts, intergroup contacts, and those occurring through mass media.

9. Open up many more opportunities for minority group members in now predominantly white organizations (such as businesses), areas (such as suburban neighborhoods), or institutions (such as public schools), and encourage other arrangements where members of different groups work, live, or act together.

Educational Environment

Along with changes in the sociopolitical arena are concomitant changes in other institutions such as the school. While focusing upon strategies for managing change as relates to minority groups it will be helpful to examine change in the general educational scene and some ways that seem to be helpful in dealing with such changes.

We live in an era of educational change. Throughout the country teachers are beginning to ask - "Who needs a principal?" The feeling is that

the principal causes more problems than he helps to solve. He is more of a hindrance than a help. Teacher unions are growing like fields of wild poppies. And speaking of poppies, pupils in the schools have changed the life of the school principal. The principal has to contend with the drug scene and the problems that accompany it; the counter-culture movement and its defiance of dress and grooming customs. Parents want administrators and teachers to be accountable but do not want to give adequate funds for much beyond a bare minimum program.

The problems associated with busing, relevancy of the curriculum, accountability, and school financing are but barometers of a changing society.

Future shock is the way that Alvin Toffler (1970, p. 11) describes it in his book by that name. Toffler states:

> Future shock is a time phenomenon, a product of the greater accelerated rate of change in society. It arises from the superimposition of a new culture on an old one. It is culture shock in one's own society. But its impact is far worse. For most Peace Corps men, in fact most travelers have the comforting knowledge that the culture they left behind will be there to return to. The victim of future shock does not.
>
> Future shock is the dizzying disorientation brought on by the premature arrival of the future. It may well be the most important disease of tommorrow.

Future shock is the untimely arrival of the future, untimely in the sense that no one seemingly, is prepared to manage the onslaught of change. We expect and predict that minorities will seek and find relief from oppression, youngsters will challenge the wisdom of elders, bureaucracy will be attacked, but where is the strategy to deal with change.

Toffler (1970, p. 342) claims that what passes for education today, even in our best schools and colleges, is a "hopeless anachronism." He views mass education as an ingenious machine constructed by industralism

to produce the kinds of adults it needed. Industralism presented the educational institution with the problem of pre-adapting children for the world of industralism--a world of competitive toil, smoke, noise, machines, crowded living conditions, collective discipline, and a world in which time was to be conserved and regulated by the factory whistle and the clock. Toffler (1970, p. 344) states:

> The solution was an educational system that in its very structure, stimulated this new world. This system did not emerge instantly. Even today it retains throw back elements from pre-industrial society. Yet the whole idea of assembling masses of students (raw material) to be processed by teachers (workers) in a centrally located school (factory) was a stroke of industrial genius. The whole administrative hierachy of education, as it grew up, followed the model of industrial bureaucracy. The very organization of knowledge into permanent disciplines was grounded on industrial assumptions. Children marched from place to place and sat in assigned stations. Bells rang to announce changes of time.
>
> The inner life of the school thus became an anticipatory mirror, a perfect introduction to industrial society. The most criticized features of education today--the regimentation, lack of individualization, grading and marking, the authoritarian role of the teacher--are precisely those that make mass public education so effective for its place and time.
>
> For many of us the need for a new super-industrial education is evident, but only possible if we once more shift our time bias forward. The failure to do this, is to reinforce the observation of Charles Silberman, that prompted him to ask, "Are schools depriving children of an education?"

Our school bureaucratic structure and its goal of adapting children to an anachronistic industrial world and people to an anachronistic sociopolitical environment will force us to develop strategies for change. Bennis (1966, p. 9) claims that the bureaucracy thrives in a highly, undifferentiated and stable environment, such as the climate of its youth, the Industrial Revolution. Bennis further reports that a pyramidal structure of authority with power concentrated in the hands of a few who have

the knowledge and resources to control an entire enterprise was, and is, an eminently suitable social arrangement for routinized tasks and periods without change. But he goes on to say that the environment has changed and that one factor accelerating change is the growth of science, research and development activities, and intellectual technology. His argument to summarize quickly is that:

> It is the requirement of adaptability to the environment which leads to the predicted demise of bureaucracy and the collapse of management as we know it now /Bennis, 1966, p. 10/.

Toffler (1970, p. 124) believes that each age produces a form of organization appropriate to its own tempo. Thus, during the long period of agriculture civilization, societies were marked by their slow rate of change. Because of delays in transportation and communication, information moved at a relatively slow pace. Individuals and organizations were seldom called upon to make what we would regard as high-speed decisions. The age of industrialism brought a quickened tempo of life. During this period, bureaucratic forms of organizations seemed suited to making better decisions than loose organizational, almost patriarchal forms, which preceeded them. The unanswered question is--what, then will organizations of the future look like and what strategies will be necessary to cope with the problems with which they will have to deal? Or as James Madison (in Banfield & Wilson, 1963) would have it, how can conflict be managed?

Would a strategy for change employing the techniques of coalition, maximize political, economical, social, and educational opportunities for Blacks and Chicanos in the Southwest?

The organizations of the future will increasingly challenge and ultimately subplant bureaucracy. Toffler (1970, p. 109) calls this form of

organization, "Ad-hocracy." According to Bennis, the key work for organizations of the future will be "temporary." Adaptive, rapidly changing systems will be organized around problem-to-be-solved. Groups will evolve in response to the problem rather than programmed role expectation. The recent Democratic Convention of 1972 is an excellent example of the theory of change in practice.

The future of the city and the great forces affecting it are rapidly becoming of major concern in this country.

The function of institutions, like the function of the "executive" becomes coordinator, or "linkin-pin" between various project groups. People will be differentiated not vertically according to rank and role but flexibly according to skill and professional training.

The process of change is indeed upon us. Schools like other institutions in American society are in the position of "ready or not you shall be caught." Educational innovation and sociopolitical innovation have been riding a wave of concern the like of which we have never seen before. Innovations of every sort are being advocated, disregarded, tried out, revised, and adopted. While teachers, administrators, board members, students, parents, foundations, accrediting agencies and officials at every level of government are pressing for reform in the schools; social workers, urbanologists, political scientists, and political practitioners are grappling with problems associated with crime, poverty, drug abuse, ghetto dwellers, minority representation, demise of the central city, annexation, housing, racism, deprivation, and injustice. Sprinkled liberally in this pot-pourri is a copious quantity of Carl Rogers, B. F. Skinner, Jersild,

Art Combs, and Abraham Maslow advancing concepts of self-autonomy, self awareness, and self-actualization.

The bureaucratic structure of the school system and the political system is speaking and cracking at the joints. What is needed by those of us responsible for providing leadership in the school, is a management strategy for producing change.

Beckhard (1969, p. 7) reports that most progressive managers today are deeply concerned with developing strategies to manage change. Managers in today's world can be reactive to environmental demands, or proactive: i.e. shape the environment. In being proactive it is necessary to seek ways to establish a climate in which increasingly complex decisions can be made and in which decisions can be made by people with the information, regardless of their position in the organization. Beckhard (1969, p. 7) further feels that managers are seeking ways to establish a work climate in which increasingly complex technologies can be managed and in which people who have an even higher sense of freedom and authonomy. Organization development is the name that Beckhard and others are attaching to total-system, planned change efforts for coping with some of the problems and concerns just mentioned.

Lewin (1958, pp. 197-211) laid the ground work for an evolving managerial change strategy called organizational development, when he developed the notion that individual and group change is most effective when norms and standards regulating member behavior are changed. It seems that when a norm is changed individuals change their behavior to conform to the newly established norms. "A Strategy for Productive Sociopolitical and Educational Behavior" could well be defined as a strategy for establishing new norms.

An example of this would be how people of different races behaved when separate schools was the norm, in contrast to how the same people responded under new norms which accompanied integration. The same could be said for public accommodation. A more recent example of this was quite evident in the Democratic Party Convention in Miami and the local primaries prior to the convention. Thus, the initial forces in organizational development or "Strategy for Productive Sociopolitical and Educational Behavior" is normative change. To put it succintly--if a group of people would like to maximize their opportunities socially, economically, educationally and politically--one way to bring this about would be to change the existing norms. That norm that is preventing them from receiving the full benefits of a free and open society. Needless to say that to change a norm is a complex process. A process that requires a strategy. Reformers are constantly trying to change the norms. A quick view of reformers' approach to change may be observed through the following illustration--the plea for a guaranteed income of X dollars annually--legalization of marijuana--alcoholism as a mental illness and you complete the list. It is our personal observation that the extent to which change is brought about is dependent upon an accurate assessment of the interacting variables characteristic of organization development.

Bennis (1969, p. 2) in his book Organization: Its Nature, Origins, and Prospects defines organization development as a response to change, a complex educational strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of organizations so that they are better adapt to new technologies, markets, and challenges, and to the dizzying rate of change itself.

An opportunity was afforded to apply techniques of organization development to a newly desegregated school in a small southern town which was the seat of state's oldest and leading University. Confronted with all of the problems associated with school desegregation of a school with a black-white ration of 50/50, the principal was able to develop successful educational programs by altering what had been the normal or traditional approach to educational programs and planning.

Parents were invited into the school and took an active part in planning and assisting with the educational activities. A volunteer parents' office was established and maintained entirely by parents. Large numbers of parents were mobilized through this office. The parents became active resources and allies of the school and were invaluable in terms of support for the school at a very crucial period of transition.

Bennis (1969, pp. 10-15) describes the major characteristics of organizational development as follows:

1. It is an educational strategy adopted to bring about a planned organizational change. The strategy almost always concentrates on changing norms ways of believing and operating.

2. The changes sought are tied directly with a recognized problem with which the organization is dealing. Bennis groups these needs into three categories on the basis of his past experience in OD.

3. OD relies on an educational strategy which emphasizes field action based behavior. Experience based methods are used to:
   a. generate data relating to the problem
   b. feedback data to relevant groups
   c. plan action on the basis of data

4. Because the external consultant can manage to affect the power structure in a way that most internal change agents cannot, change agents are for the most part, but not exclusively, external to the client system.

5. OD implies a collaborative relationship between change agents and the client system. Collaboration involves mutual trust, joint determination of goals and means, and high mutual influence.

6. OD change agents usually share a social philosophy, a set of values about the world in general and human organizations in particular which shape their strategies, determine their interventions, and largely govern their responses to client system.

7. The seventh major characteristic is that change agents usually share a set of normative goals. Those goals most commonly sought are:
   a. better organizational interpersonal relationships
   b. a shift in traditional values which usually stress getting the job done even at the risk of ignoring feelings to a set of values which include feelings
   c. development of increased understanding between and among people in order to reduce tensions
   d. development of more effective team management
   e. development of more open and rational methods of dealing with organizational conflict rather than relying on more traditional autocratic methods
   f. development of organic rather than mechanical systems
      Organic systems are characterized by high degrees of:
      (1) relationships between and among groups
      (2) mutual confidence and trust
      (3) interdependence and shared responsibility
      (4) multigroup membership and responsibility
      (5) wide sharing of responsibility and control.
      (6) conflict resolution through bargaining or problem-solving

Bennis (1969, p. 17) states the case for organizational development by saying:

> The basic value underlying all organization development theory and practice is that of choice. Through focused attention and through the collection and feedback of relevant data to relevant people, more choices become available and hence better decisions are made. That is essentially what organization development is: an educational strategy employing the widest possible means of experiences-based on behavior in order to achieve more and better organizational choices in a high turbulent world.

One of the authors of this paper has developed several instruments while serving as an organizational development change agent to gather

data relevant to the recognized problems particular to the school systems involved. In one school system where the identified problem was desegregation, the first step in gathering data was, through interviews and group meetings, to discover what concerns, fears, and problems people in the school system felt were associated with the desegregation problem. These concerns, fears and problems were categorized and converted into a survey instrument to discover the intensity of the problems. Parents, pupils, certified and non-certified staff responded to the survey and data analyses were provided which revealed problem areas for the system and each individual school by position sex, race and age. On the basis of the data analysis training programs were devised and interventions implemented. In another school system the "School Organizational Development Questionnaire" which is an instrument adapted from Rensis Likert's (1967, pp. 197-211) "Profile of Organizational Characteristics" was administered. The "School Organizational Development Questionnaire" can be administered to pupils 5th grade through 12th grade and all certified staff. It measures organizational health in regard to the following categories: confidence and trust in leaders, decision-making, communication, control, and organizational satisfaction. The scoring procedure and the accompanying data feedback permits system and individual school analyses which pinpoint problems in the above mentioned categories by position, by race, by age, and by sex. From the data analyses, intervention programs are planned and a readministration of the instrument can determine progress made. A third instrument in the process of development which has been used in several school systems in Georgia is the "School Program Bonanza Game."

The basic idea for the format of the "School Program Bonanza Game" came from a report on a transportation survey reported in a London trade journal called the Economist, May 1970 issue. The nine categories used in the game were mainly derived from the Goals for Education in Georgia pamphlet. These nine categories are: 1. The 3 R's, 2. The Social World, 3. The Physical World, 4. The Work World, 5. The Arts, 6. Health, Physical Development and Safety, 7. Making Choices, 8. Relationships with Others, and 9. Development of Self. Under each category there are three illustrated choices. The first choices cost nothing and typically involve a choice of little guarantee that the activity will receive a planned emphasis in the school program. The second or middle choices cost a medium amount of money (medium in that the cost is usually half the cost of the third choice) and typically involve a choice of medium or middle range intensity of guarantee, very often a functional approach to school program. The third or last choices cost the most and typically involve a choice of greatest intensity in each area. For example in the first category, "The 3 R's," the illustrated choices are:

a. Learn the 3 R's from need or interest (a cartoon drawing of a young man fixing a car while he is reading a "How to" book)
   0 clips $ 0

b. Learn enough of the 3 R's to do OK, to get along in the world (a cartoon drawing of a young man in the library reading books from the "How to Fix It, Get a Job, Build" shelves)
   3 clips $ 300

c. Learn 3 R's well enough to be prepared to get into college

(a cartoon drawing of a young man in a cap and gown reading a letter of acceptance from a college)

6 clips $ 600

The instructions for the game are as follows:

Suppose that your school has just been given enough money to let each parent, student and teacher spend $2,000 for school program improvements. Also, suppose that the top row of pictures (the first picture in each area) is the way your school has been before you got the improvement money. In this game you have 20 paper clips and each clip is worth $100.

The idea is to decide where you will spend your $2,000. (Place your 20 paper clips). The middle squares cost 2 or 3 paper clips ($200 or $300) and the bottom squares or choices cost 3, 4, 5, or 6 paper clips. ($300, $400, $500 or $600).

Since you must put the exact number of paper clips or money called for in each square, you do not have enough clips (money) to make improvements in each area of the school program. Spend your money to improve those parts of the program you value most.

If you have any paper clips left over and do not have enough to put the exact number called for in a square, then clip the left-over ones to your answer sheet.

FOLLOW THESE STEPS

1. Fill out the information part of the answer sheet.
2. Start with the 3 R's--read and look at the pictures in each area from TOP TO BOTTOM.
3. Spend your $2,000 (20 clips).

4. Change your choices until you are satisfied that you are getting what you want.

5. Mark answers on the answer sheet.

The game forces one to make preferences on the basis of priorities. It is simple to administer and to play. Any amount of help can be given with the exception that the player has to place the paper clips unassisted. There was not one instance reported where there was any but minor difficulty in playing the Bonanza Game.

The data are analyzed and reported in many different ways, but the analyses most manageable and usable immediately are those for the overall system and for the individual school. Summary information giving frequency, precentages and scores are given for totals and by positions.

Working with the data, decisions can be made to work on high priority areas rated poorly; or on areas which show large discrepancies as far as priorities are concerned; or on areas which the races or sexes are in conflict about; or, any other alternative as decided upon by the people involved. Although every school has contributed to the overall system data, each school can look at its own data and individualize the school improvement program.

Organizational development is an emerging management strategy which is action research oriented. It is a process which can be used to attack any problem in the schools. It is a process that is gaining wide acceptance in industrial management and is beginning to be used by school systems throughout the country to remedy the problems not only inherent in our bureaucratic school structures, but also in school situation where minority groups are present and powerless. Programs and structures which

take into account the needs of those outside the present power structures begin to do more than house the minority groups.

SUMMARY

The American political system is extremely complex. The complexities and present practices of the system and its institutions such as the school frustrate attempts of minorities to maximize opportunities. Such frustrations and feeling of powerlessness on the part of minority groups has led to the explosive nature of the current scene in too many aspects of American life. It is not enough to suggest that minority groups should work within the system.

Drastic change is taking place in America today. For many of us that point is not debatable. If drastic change does indeed foster revolution then our challenge is to help bring about peaceful revolution by making those changes that give power to the powerless. Both the majority and the minority groups are presented with the challenge of developing strategies and techniques for implementing these strategies which will impart the educational, technical, social and political skills which will enable the weak to get bread, human dignity, freedom and strength by their own efforts. It is hoped that this paper represents a beginning direction for developing strategies to impart these skills.

REFERENCES

Banfield, E., & Wilson, J. City politics. New York: Vintage Books, 1963.

Beckhard, R. Strategies of organization development. Reading, Mass.: Addison Wesley, 1969.

Bennis, W. Changing organizations. New York: McGraw Hill, 1966.

Downs, A. Urban problems and prospects. Chicago: Markham Publishing Company, 1971.

Harrington, M. The other American. New York: Penguin Book Inc., 1962.

Hoffer, E. The ordeal of change. New York: Harper and Row, 1963.

Lewin, K. "Group Decisions and Social Change." In E. E. MaCoby, T. M. Newcomb, and E. L. Hartley (eds.), Readings in social psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1958.

Likert, R. The human organization. New York: McGraw Hill, 1967.

Lineberry, R. & Sharkansky, I. Urban politics and public policy. New York: Harper and Row, 1971.

Riis, J. How the other half lives. New York: Hill and Wang, 1957.

Silberman, C. Crisis in the classroom: The remaking of american education. New York: Random House, 1970.

Toffler, A. Future shock. New York: Random House, 1970.

Wilkins, R. "Integration: Siren call of separatism has repeatedly failed." Ebony, August, 1970, pp. 54.

Young, W. Jr. "We are separated". Ebony, August, 1970, pp. 90.